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while the effort to emphasize analogies and suggest connections is of much interest, the general result is more adapted to give point to a popular lecture than satisfaction to the student.

But the reviewer is perhaps falling into the captious criticism he would avoid, and he hopes that it may still appear that he regards Mr. Fisher's striking summary as of unusual interest. The serious student will find it suggestive and stimulating, and the general reader, tempted to read more, will not easily find more of the same kind. That the author has telling gifts of historical presentation is clear on every page; his lucidity and power of summary are aided by a constant attention to literary form, and by a skilful use of some striking bits of literary material.

VICTOR COFFIN.

*Deutsche Geschichte.* Von KARL LAMPRECHT. Zehnter Band. (Berlin: Weidmann. 1907. Pp. xii, 539.)

HOLDING closely to the plan fixed by its predecessors, the tenth volume of Lamprecht's history carries the interpretation through the period from the end of the Vienna Congress to 1848. Approximately two-thirds of the space is devoted to culture history and the remainder to the development of the political system and of political thought. As usual the reader is as much impressed by what the book does not contain as by its actual contents. Lamprecht chooses to consider great individuals and even epoch-marking events as significant only in that they indicate the trend of the national spirit (*Geist*). History to him is not the record of exceptional men but the unfolding of the powers of the nation, a process as nearly spontaneous as the growth of an organic body. The first two chapters have to do with the earlier and later phases of romanticism, and the order of topics is the one that has now become familiar to Lamprecht's readers. First are treated philosophy, poetry, music and the other fine arts, then the physical sciences. Romanticism, of which the earliest phase ended with the wars of liberation, was the first development of subjectivism which penetrated the whole of the nation. Earlier aspects of this soul-mood had affected only particular centres and cities. Of the philosophers of romanticism Fichte was the first and in some respects the greatest, and he best typifies its mystic tendency. From the later romanticism to realism the transition was almost imperceptible; the greater dominance of the exact sciences in all branches of culture is the distinguishing note. Lamprecht cites only to vigorously deny Treitschke's remark that the development of the physical sciences was decisively influenced by the methods of historical criticism. He thinks that the influence was exerted in exactly the opposite direction.

In the ninth volume the author had brought the discussion of political events down to 1815 (see this REVIEW, XIII. 351). Immediately after the Vienna Congress came a period when German political life

reached the lowest point to which it ever sank. This, however, was not true of the whole of Europe, and in a general survey of the history of Europe in this time Lamprecht finds much that was hopeful. The largest centres of interest from his point of view lie in the Greek and Belgian revolutions. Perhaps the principle of nationality may be taken as the most thoroughly characteristic note of subjectivism in politics. German national sentiment had grown to great proportions during the wars of liberation, but "it is to be noted that the spirit of the liberation wars did not at all arise from a uniformly distributed sentiment. The lesser states of the west did not share the Prussian enthusiasm, nor did Austria wholly do so; hence there did not spring up in these states a deep and passionate feeling for the united fatherland. Whatever sentiment had existed outside of Prussia for the greatness of the nation was largely drawn to Prussia: Stein and Scharnhorst, Hardenberg, Blücher and Gneisenau, Niebuhr, Fichte and K. F. Eichhorn, with many others, were not native Prussians" (p. 382). Before 1830 the liberal movement, manifesting itself chiefly in the universities, turned towards constitutionalism rather than national unification. In the southern states the French influence was still strong, and south German *Parlamentarismus* stood in strong contrast to the *Absolutismus* of the north, where Prussia's example was and had remained predominant. After the July revolution the young German movement became the exponent of a type of practical patriotism which is clearly distinguishable from the old sentimental love of the fatherland and which aspired definitely to the creation of a united nation. Best reflected at first in lyric poetry, this radical trend began, soon after 1840, to find open expression in parliamentary discussion, especially in the southwestern states, and, just before 1848, in spasmodic popular risings.

While liberalism was thus developing towards its culmination the conservative school of thought was well entrenched behind the actual administration. Conservatism like liberalism held to the organic theory of society, but it was also rooted in religious ideas. It sought "unity and infinite perfection as well as organic harmony of the universe in this principle: the creation of a church-state system as an articulated whole, with a union of the parts through the ordered functioning of the parts and the whole; with a master principle like the Eros of Plato and the *amor infinitus* of Spinoza, but with a practical trend and therefore the basis of all poetry and all reality" (p. 443). Conservatism as well as liberalism was an outgrowth of the romantic period. "If we seek to penetrate to the sources of conservative thought it is evident that they are to be found not in the theories of such publicists as De Maistre, Albrecht von Haller or Adam Müller, but rather in the writings of the early Romantics like Novalis and the Schlegels, and particularly Friedrich von Schlegel" (p. 442). Between an absolutist social philosophy of this type and the growing idea of popular sovereignty the

conflict which followed in the year of revolutions is seen to have been inevitable. Whatever may be the verdict on Lamprecht's historical method, however much one may quarrel with his perspective, it cannot be denied that he has, in this final chapter, given a masterly analysis of the social-psychic forces in German life during the critical period just before 1848. It was naturally to be expected that, in writing of an age near enough to his own for its dominant trends to be personally felt, his method would have more of the air of reality than when applied to remoter periods where the treatment must at best be mainly objective. The present volume certainly is vital and well-compacted in a degree which hardly characterizes the earlier ones of the series.

ULYSSES G. WEATHERLY.

### BOOKS OF AMERICAN HISTORY

*The American Revolution.* Part III. By Sir GEORGE OTTO TREVILYAN, Bart. (New York and London: Longmans, Green and Company. 1907. Pp. xii, 492.)

THE work of which this volume is a part has appeared in two forms. One form—let us say the first—consists, up to date, of three parts forming four volumes. Part I. forms one volume, then comes part II., vol. I., then part II., vol. II., and then part III., the volume before us. The second form consists, up to date, of three volumes, vol. I., vol. II., and vol. III., to which, it is understood, a fourth volume is to be added to bring this form up to the point reached by the first.

Part III. embraces the most stirring and generally interesting period of the American Revolution. It covers the campaigns of Saratoga and the Brandywine, the encampment of Valley Forge, and the successful negotiations of the American commissioners with the court of France. The author is one of the small number of Europeans represented by Chateaubriand, de Tocqueville, von Holst, and Bryce, who have written about the United States of America in a spirit of sympathy, and with a comprehension which has enabled them to enlighten Americans about their own country and institutions, about their endeavors and their achievements. Sir George sets forth events and their causes and consequences with the fairness, not so much of a neutral as of a partizan of both sides. To him the American Revolution is veritably a family quarrel. As a kinsman of both contestants he takes a proud satisfaction in recognizing whatever is commendable on the part of either.

At least in one case his commendation of American military spirit is excessive. He says that in the course of the war Massachusetts sent to the front nearly 70,000 troops, meaning regular troops, or Continentals. This statement he bases upon Knox's report communicated to Congress in 1790. The report does not warrant such a state-